JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY

VOL. VII, NO. 3
MAY–JUNE
1 9 4 3

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AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY

VOLUME VII MAY-JUNE, 1943 NUMBER 3

JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY

PUBLISHED BY THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY, INC.

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The JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY publishes results of research bearing on the application of psychology, short articles and communications relating to professional psychological service, official reports of the activities of the American Association for Applied Psychology, Incorporated, and of other organized groups of professional psychologists with representation in its Board of Affiliates, information and notices of interest to psychologists, resources available to the profession, and critical reviews of the professional literature. Contributions are invited from all fields which are significantly related to applied psychology.

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Correspondence regarding subscriptions and business matters should be addressed to the publishing office at Colorado Springs, Colorado, or to Dr. John G. Darley, *Business Manager*, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

The JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY is published bimonthly, six times a year. All members of the American Association for Applied Psychology are entitled to receive the JOURNAL upon payment of their annual dues, of which $2.50 is applied to the JOURNAL. Affiliated state or regional associations may arrange a group subscription with the Business Office through their Representative in the Board of Affiliates whereby members of the group subscription are entitled to receive the JOURNAL upon payment of $2.50 added to the dues of their association. The individual subscription is $3.00 a year and single copies are 60 cents a number. Postage is prepaid. Claims for nonreceipt of a number will be honored in the Business Office within two weeks after receipt of the next succeeding number.

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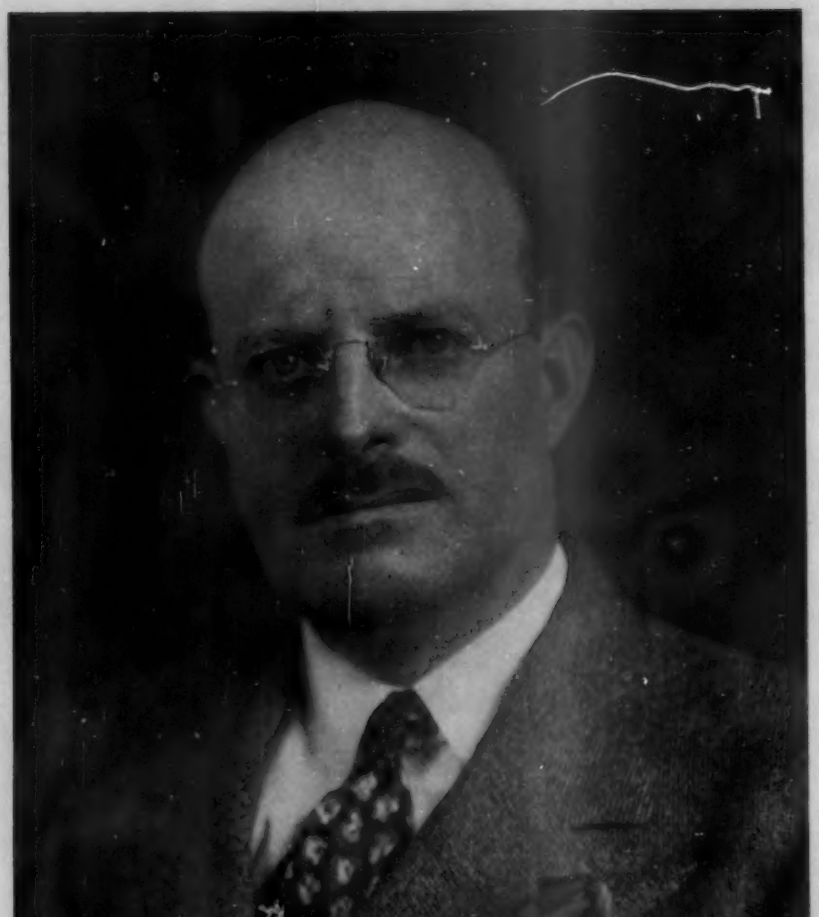

THIS IS ONE OF A SERIES OF PORTRAITS OF PSYCHOLOGISTS WHO HAVE CONTRIBUTED NOTABLY TO PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Volume VII MAY-JUNE, 1943 Number 3

JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY

FURTHER OPPORTUNITIES FOR APPLIED PSYCHOLOGISTS IN OFFENSIVE WARFARE[1]

BY JOHN G. WATKINS
ALABAMA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE

THERE is urgent need today of a radical, even though temporary, change in the basic approach of the applied psychologist in his research. The psychological scientist has always utilized his data for the betterment of man, the improvement of efficiency, and for increasing physical and psychological well-being. In line with this same concept, the psychological services being employed today by the nation's armed forces chiefly involve the application of research results to increasing human efficiency and endurance, or in bettering the methods of personnel selection. It is also common for the psychological efficiency expert in industry to search his literature with an eye toward any "constructive" finding which will help him in the job of accelerating output.

It is now time that we right-about-faced. Unfortunately, a war is not constructive—it is destructive. The habits of peace-time research will not fit into the actualities of world-wide struggle unless we choose not to survive. If we reject the idea of submission, if we would prevail, then we must assume the offensive in action and in thought. The military man has been forced to change his basic conceptions of national defense; likewise, the past frame of reference of our research and applied psychology is no longer tenable. We must now comb all literature available to us with the object in mind of determining the factors which are "destructive" of human well-being and efficiency. These findings must then be ruthlessly applied as offensive weapons against our foe. Total War means a struggle of populations, not just professional armies. Our enemies realize this point and have acted accordingly. Must we always be second best? For example, morale is a two-edged sword. Yet we spend by far the greater amount of our best study and application with the objective of maintaining our own morale and very little in attempting to injure our enemies' morale. Merely parrying the enemy's thrust, however deftly, will never win this war unless we ourselves are prepared to lunge.

In an earlier paper (43) the need for increased use of psychological warfare was emphasized. Let us now consider

[1] *See* John G. Watkins, "Offensive Psychological Warfare," JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY, 1942, 8: 117-22, for an earlier discussion of this topic.—EDITOR.

some specific ways by which this branch of combat can be coordinated with military and naval strategy. The few studies which are cited in this paper are mentioned only to illustrate the possibilities in various lines. No attempt has been made to actually review all the findings in any one field.

COORDINATING PSYCHOLOGICAL AND MILITARY OFFENSIVES

"Let not thy right hand know what thy left hand is doing." For a period of over three years now the tacticians of the United Nations, past and present, appear to have been following that old maxim. The long record of Allied failures is replete with examples where the various weapons of warfare were uncoordinated, "too little and too late" as our newspapers have usually described these situations. Our own disaster at Pearl Harbor has been partly traced to the lack of effective coordination between Army and Navy commands.[2] Yet we still seem to continue, months after the war has started, our lack-a-daisical absence of coordination. Our psychological offensives—what little we are doing in this line—are largely being conducted by civilian agencies. In some of these the psychological scientist is being used, and in some he is not. Not that civilians are unable to perform these services well, but rather that these projects seem to be carried out without the full cooperation and mutual understanding of our military leaders.

Psychological warfare is still in large measure considered an interesting toy by many military men rather than a full-fledged weapon in their arsenal—a weapon which should always be in the vanguard of their attacks. The ability of well-organized psychological offensives carefully timed to achieve greatest military damage has been amply proven. The front pages of newspapers from April to June, 1940 are covered with conclusive evidence. Military leaders must be convinced not only that psychological warfare is valuable to the cause, but also that they should use it in careful coordination with their other weapons.

Yet we hesitate to use the strategy of terror on our enemies. Our military men talk in terms of manpower and firepower, forgetting that guns, planes, and tanks are only tools in the hands of men who may or may not have the will to use them. Psychologists are consulted but little in the problems of offensive strategy.

We may not be seriously applying our psychology in offensives against the enemy, but the enemy is vitally afraid of potential psychological attacks. A release of the Office of War Information[3] notes that "Japan this week is observing 'Listening Defense Week,' a campaign warning the population against spies and enemy propaganda. . . . 'When we had a raid over the capital city, there were many rumors spread. The Japanese people would believe such rumors without further consideration.' " So goes the report from Tokyo. It seems likely that these rumors grew naturally. If they were actually the result of our own planned incitation then we are already making much greater strides than seems probable. If the rumors were not actually planted by our own agents, they should have been. Every military action should be preceded and followed by hosts of rumors planted in enemy popu-

[2] To the President: *"Report of the Roberts Commission on the Facts of the Japanese Attack on Pearl Harbor,"* Jan. 23, 1942. Text in the *New York Times*, Jan. 25, 1942, pp. 30-31.

[3] July 14, 1942.

lations. Rumor is a potent psychological weapon about which too little is known and less applied. Without objective supporting evidence it does not seem unreasonable to note the great power of a rumor. Even Vergil centuries ago commented on its force.[4] Today we have even had firms who contract to spread whispering campaigns. A destructive rumor, in creating fears and anxieties, disturbing home morale, initiating worries into skilled and technical personnel, preying on the more neurotic workers, and in forcing denials, thus frequently giving away military information, might do more harm to the enemy's war effort than a good saboteur or well-placed torpedo. Note that to fight this war we must hurt not only our enemy's armed forces, but also his total war effort including production and the home front. All too often in the past we have been on the receiving end of this kind of warfare. Yet we have many news agencies and methods of disseminating information. Consider how much more ripe for rumors are a people who have been fed on concentrated lies and propaganda through their government—controlled press, and who are aware of its deficiencies. In spite of the meager literature on rumors (3, 7, 10, 18, 20, 31) we must plan to use it as an effective weapon.

This means that a military offensive should be planned with psychological advisors. Rumors should precede the military action and be carefully organized and initiated to ensure a maximum of enemy distraction. The objective of this should be to force the widest dispersal of the enemy forces. The "wolf-wolf" technique could be used over and over again. Continuous response to repeated stimulations will bring about fatigue conditions. Thus Poffenberger (29: Chapter 7) notes that distractions are usually overcome, but only at the cost of greater effort. This effort would have a cumulative fatigue effect if protracted over a long period of time. A substantial number of investigations have been conducted in the field of attention and distraction (6, 28). These studies should be of great interest to the military leader. When our information indicates that the enemy has ceased to jump to the alert every time we cry out, the real attack could begin. After a military action has been successfully completed the rumors should then be started of such a nature as to magnify the incident in the minds of the enemy citizenry.

The skilled boxer or fencer feints before he strikes. Psychological warfare should be the feint of the military man. The skill with which the feint is executed may determine the success with which the blow is dealt. Only a fool leads with his jaw. Nowhere could advance psychological warfare be better employed than in connection with the projected Second Front. Skillful use of fear could cause the Germans to withdraw some divisions from the Russian Front thus partially accomplishing the hoped-for diversion. The emotion of fear has been studied by many investigators (4, 5, 12, 17, 25, 33, 38, 40, 41, 45, 47). We know many of its causes and how it can be initiated. We should, therefore, plan the use of this tool offensively. Bombing raids of the one-thousand plane type should be preceded by leaflets over ten large cities in the Reich announcing that 24 hours later one of those ten cities is to be wiped out. Then not only will one city be destroyed, but the populations of nine other great industrial areas will leave and quit their work for the night. After the

[4] Publius Vergilius Maro, *The Aeneid*, Book IV, lines 173-97.

raid has completed its objective, pictures and reports of the devastation created must be dropped in leaflet form over the other nine cities. Let not the Nazi government minimize the damage without losing the faith of its people. The next time our air forces serve notice that another of that group of cities is to be demolished, we can be certain that the transportation facilities leading out of all nine cities will be clogged with workers and their families trying to evacuate before nightfall. All war work in these cities will stop again. Consider the nervous strain on the enemy workers. Yes, psychological warfare can multiply the damage wrecked on the enemy war effort over that accomplished by bombs alone.

Timing of air raids should be developed in the light of all our findings in the psychology of fatigue, distraction, and learning. Some of these investigations have even thrown considerable light on the volume and quality of auditory distractions necessary to produce a maximum of interference with work or sleep (19, 22, 26, 27, 34). The deleterious effects of cumulative sleep deprivation have also been amply demonstrated (9, 14, 21, 46). Daylight raids even by single planes should be planned with an eye on production curves at different hours of the day in the enemy factories. Poffenberger (29:119) presents a typical curve of this nature. Interruptions in the form of air raids should be timed to interfere with peak production rates and to prevent full advantage of warm-up periods. The cooperation of Military Intelligence would be essential in determining the times of the day at which various shifts begin and finish their work. In another paper (44) certain of these findings have been used to develop a detailed plan for a coordinated bombing and psychological offensive aimed at reducing enemy industrial output. The greatest total damage, psychological as well as physical, must be the objective in all air raids, and our military leaders should be urged to consider psychological damage in the same serious light as physical damage.

COORDINATING PSYCHOLOGICAL OFFENSIVES WITH EACH OTHER

There has been a tendency in the past to use the words "psychological warfare" and "propaganda" as identical. It should be evident by now that the first includes much more than mere propaganda. Yet even our propaganda campaigns lack coordination. Radio programs and leaflet dropping should supplement each other. Planes could drop a "Radio Guide" over enemy cities informing the people of the exact hours and dial settings of broadcasts. There should be Hamburg nights, Berlin nights, Milan nights, etc. During these broadcasts captured prisoners who live in that city should be interviewed over the radio. The initials or common names of these prisoners could be announced in leaflets which were previously dropped over the city. Every parent in Hamburg having a son called Hans who might have been captured should be informed that next Monday at 8:00 P.M. on a certain dial setting "Hans" will say a few words informing his relatives that he has not been killed but merely taken prisoner. Let the German government try to keep the parents of Hamburg from listening. We may argue in scientific circles whether the so-called parental instinct is innate or acquired (1, 2, 8, 11, 15, 24, 36), but at least we agree that it exists as a powerful motivating factor.

The German people *must* be reached by our information sources. Our greatest hope lies in splitting the people away

from their Nazi leaders. If it is necessary for us to deliver newspapers to their very doors, then by all means let us do it. Propaganda leaflets should utilize all that we know about advertising, the use of colors, cartoons, pictures and other attention getters. We have a number of applied psychologists in this country who have spent their lives studying the factors which attract the American consumer of merchandise (23, 30, 39, 42). Why not use their findings in fishing for the Axis consumer of our propaganda? A complete re-examination of our literature on motivation is certainly in order here.

Part of the job of Military Intelligence should be to send back to us observational data on the effect of the various campaigns. No advertiser today relies entirely on rule of thumb. Surely ways can be found, however indirect, of polling enemy reaction to our various appeals. The science of securing valid polls by control of small samples has made many advances recently (13, 16, 23, 32, 35, 37). The services of our statistically inclined men should be mobilized on problems of this type.

PSYCHOANALYZING ENEMY MILITARY LEADERS

At the present time we are fighting an unknown Japanese general in the Aleutians. The Japanese are shrewd. We do not know the calibre of the antagonist facing us there. However, we announced ahead of time that General Eisenhower would assume command of our forces when the Second Front was established. The Nazis must have been overjoyed at finding out so easily who the man was to be. Undoubtedly, within the hour complete files were being sent to the German commanders in the West—files which told these men everything about General Eisenhower: his likes, interests, weaknesses, handling of business deals, friends, hobbies, family, school record down to the mark he made in third grade spelling, etc., completely analyzed by the best clinical psychologists in Europe. Those who doubt that the Germans have collected and use such information on our military leaders should read a recent report on methods of German psychological warfare (10). We plan and fight an unknown quantity; they plan and fight a reasonably well-known quantity. Why shouldn't the talents of our best clinical psychologists be used in hunting strengths and weaknesses in the various Axis military and naval leaders? We are all creatures of habit. Know a man's habits of action and thought and you can quite frequently predict his behavior under a given set of circumstances. Surely this information is as vital to our military leaders as the number of tanks and planes possessed by the opposing enemy units.

MORE EFFECTIVE UTILIZATION OF SUPERIOR MILITARY PERSONNEL

History is full of instances in which the greatest of military geniuses arose from the civilian groups; of men, yes, and women, who were forced to the position of leadership by unusual circumstances, and who have changed the map of the world by their strategical brilliance. Both Hitler and Rommel are examples of this. Our own military personnel policy is not living up to its potentialities if it concentrates only on fitting draftees to routine positions. We have valid intelligence tests. What is being done with the 160 I.Q. inductee? The conservative military man may laugh, if he will, at the idea of promoting almost overnight a civilian into a position of great strategical importance with little formal military training. He who laughs should first recall the June

events on the African sands and compare the record of Rommel or Chiang Kai-shek, men without formal military education, to that of the article-writing generals and admirals who have been making wrong predictions and analyses ever since the fall of France. This is not to depreciate formal military training; it is merely to point out that the brilliant civilian may secure such formal training as is necessary in a comparatively short time and make rapidly available to the Military the benefits of his able mental ability. Genius must be discovered, mobilized and utilized. If the Germans are to continue to best us in this respect, then our future is indeed dark.

With an active offensive-minded corps of psychological scientists, undoubtedly many more methods and possibilities of using psychological services in the war can be opened. However, it would seem that we should at the present time certainly expend more effort in the following directions:

1. Let us assume the offensive instead of the defensive viewpoint in psychological research and application. This means determining the factors which impair rather than improve human efficiency.
2. Let us spend more time applying and making available the results of past research in the science of human behavior; hence, less time on new research. During an emergency a weapon in the hand is worth two in the bush.
3. Let us press for the greater use of psychological personnel in the *offensive* problems of combat. Psychological warfare must include much more than propaganda.
4. Let us work for the greater recognition of psychological warfare as an effective offensive weapon which should be *closely coordinated* with all other forms of warfare, military, naval or economic in the prosecution of this Total War.

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TREATMENT PROGRAMS IN AMERICAN TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR DELINQUENTS[1]

BY STEPHEN HABBE
NATIONAL TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS
WASHINGTON, D. C.

EARLIER studies reported in this journal and elsewhere have suggested that training school programs are behind the times.[2] The evidence presented in this paper indicates that many of the schools are making noticeable progress in bringing their programs and practices into line with the findings of modern psychosociological research. A few of the schools, we believe, are able to match, item for item, the offerings of representative secondary schools, public or private.

In the following will be presented the current training school picture as seen through 70 completed questionnaire forms returned by as many American training schools during the summer of 1942. Special attention will be given to the mental hygiene programs in these schools.

INTRODUCTION

It may be explained that "training schools," sometimes called "correctional schools" or "reformatories," are for young delinquents of both sexes. The usual age range is from twelve to eighteen years. All states have one or more such schools. Usually there are separate schools for boys and girls. Most of the southern states have four training schools, dividing their delinquent youth on the color, as well as on the sex, basis. In addition to the state-supported schools, there are federal schools, county and municipal schools, and private schools. Some states have as many as twelve schools for delinquents. It is estimated that forty thousand youths are enrolled in American training schools.

The questionnaire devised for this survey was a comprehensive form of seven sheets with generous spaces for replies. It was mailed on June 15, 1942, with a cover letter to the superintendents of 180 American training schools. There are more than 200 such schools in this country but some are tiny "home" schools which accommodate only ten or twenty children, and thus cannot be expected to show a full program or a full complement of personnel.

The questionnaire is reproduced in full, except for the blank spaces, so that the reader may follow in detail the corresponding tabulations and the discussion of the findings. (See pages 57-9).

Seventy-six of the 180 questionnaires were returned and, of these, 70 were

[1] This paper was to have been read at the Fiftieth Anniversary meeting of the American Psychological Association in Boston, September, 1942. The full report has been distributed to the seventy cooperating schools.

[2] *See* "Report of the Committee on Psychological Work in Institutions for Delinquent Boys and Girls," JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY, 1942, 6: 157-62 and "Comments on the Report of the Committee on Psychological Work in Institutions for Delinquent Boys and Girls," *loc. cit.*, 163-64.

complete enough for use. Replies were received from 39 states and the District of Columbia. Table I analyzes the return and compares it with the original mailing list.

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF TRAINING SCHOOLS RECEIVING AND RETURNING QUESTIONNAIRES

Control of School	Total	Boys	Girls	Coed	Population over 99	Population under 100
1A Schools Receiving Questionnaires						
State or federal	112	54	46	12	92	20
County or municipal	43	25	12	6	17	26
Private	25	12	11	2	18	7
Totals	180	91	69	20	127	53
1B Schools Returning Questionnaires						
State or federal	51	24	20	7	42	9
County or municipal	13	10	3	0	5	8
Private	6	3	3	0	3	3
Totals	70	37	26	7	50	20

It will be noted from these figures that questionnaires were returned by 39 per cent of all the schools, 41 per cent of the boys' schools, 38 per cent of the girls' schools, and 35 per cent of the coed schools. Forty per cent of the larger schools replied and 38 per cent of the smaller schools. Participation was secured from 46 per cent of the state-federal schools, from 30 per cent of the county-municipal schools, and from 24 per cent of the private schools. It was concluded that a fairly satisfactory return was obtained and no followup was made.

The interest taken in the study by the 70 schools supplying well-filled-out forms was gratifying. Sixty-one of the 70 papers were completed by superintendents, 8 by department heads, and only 1 by a clerical worker. Twenty-five schools sent copies of lesson materials, guide books, and so forth, in addition to the questionnaires. A number of schools wrote letters expressing interest in the undertaking and offering any further assistance desired. The superintendent of a boys' school in the South wrote, in part: "Of course, writing down the answers to these questions is a good bit of analysis of the work we are doing; checking up on ourselves. You will see the weaknesses of our program as well as the strengths .... When you get all this together, I would certainly like to have a copy of your findings."

FINDINGS

What is the philosophy of the heads of American training schools? How do they conceive the chief purposes of the institutional care of delinquents?

This section was placed last in the questionnaire so that the answers to it would not color the rest of the replies, but it offers a good starting point for our discussion. Obviously, the entire program of any institution reflects to a considerable extent the philosophy of its head.

In general, there are only two philosophies in training-school work. One emphasizes the *custody* of the delinquent;

TABLE II
PHILOSOPHIES OF INSTITUTIONAL CARE OF DELINQUENTS HELD BY SEVENTY TRAINING SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS

OBJECTIVES	"Vote" on Importance 1st	2nd	3rd	4th
1. To uphold the law.	13	10	3	4
2. To serve as a deterrent to others who might otherwise be tempted to wrongdoing.	4	12	4	3
3. To punish those who have transgressed the law.	3	5	3	2
4. To rehabilitate those sent to the institution.	50	9	1	0
5. To protect society by isolating its wrongdoers.	7	11	2	9
6. To provide a protected, supervised environment for unstable youth during the stormy years of adolescence.	27	24	8	2
7. To help those committed to the institution to learn to do better those desirable things which they are going to be doing anyway in later life.	41	9	11	0

the other emphasizes his *training*. These philosophies are miles apart. While provisions for both custody and training can and should be *included* in an institutional program, they cannot both be *emphasized*. They are mutually exclusive at too many points! A boy cannot be trained to be self-reliant if someone is watching and calling his every move!

Few training school superintendents today emphasize the custodial aspect of their programs. This is indicated by a glance at Table II. We listed seven statements of objectives and asked that they be marked 1, 2, 3, etc., in order of preference.

Fifty superintendents marked the fourth objective as "most fundamental," forty-one marked the seventh objective as "most fundamental," and so forth. Only three considered the third objective as "most fundamental."

Twenty-four marked the sixth objective as the second-best statement of their philosophy. Some superintendents rated all the objectives but most marked only two or three. On several dozen papers, two or more objectives were marked equally as "most fundamental."

Table II shows the "vote" to four places only. The frequencies for the low votes—for fifth, sixth, and seventh positions—were so small that they are meaningless. In no instance did they exceed four or affect the order of the vote.

It will be noted that Objectives 1, 2, 3 and 5 are legal-custodial in nature, while the three remaining objectives are social-rehabilitative. There is no question where the superintendents stand. In their thinking, at least, they overwhelmingly wish to do something positive and helpful for the youth entrusted to their care.

We have learned to expect a gap between ideals and realizations, between thinking and acting, between philosophies and practices. How much of a gap does this study reveal in the training school field?

FACILITIES FOR TREATMENT

Section 1 of the questionnaire inquired about physical facilities for treatment. Table III tabulates the replies.

TABLE III

FACILITIES FOR TREATMENT PROGRAMS IN SEVENTY TRAINING SCHOOLS

Facility (alphabetical order)	Schools Having		Comment
	Number	Per Cent	
Academic school building	66	94	Several used city schools
Assembly room(s)	62	89	
Athletic field(s)	59	84	Many had several fields
Canteen or Commissary	31	45	One took orders; bought later
Chapel	45	64	Some used school rooms
Club room(s)	29	41	Some used school rooms
Disciplinary unit	34	49	One had unit in each cottage
Gymnasium	42	60	
Hospital or Infirmary	54	77	Several used city hospitals
Individual clothing lockers	50	71	One provided bureau for each girl
Individual interview rooms	42	60	
Individual sleeping rooms	27	39	For 10 per cent up, of population
Inside play rooms	56	80	
Vocational shops	56	80	

One school reported only four of the facilities listed; several of the schools had all of them. Additional facilities mentioned by one or more schools included swimming pool, tennis courts, lighted play areas for night use.

It certainly would be unfair and misleading to judge an institution by its physical equipment. An institution with few facilities may be carrying on a better program than another institution with all the facilities. This is not to say that proper and adequate equipment is of no aid in the development of a treatment program. Good equipment and good facilities should help greatly. They generally do. But facilities cannot make a program or take the place of a program. Facilities become valuable only when properly used.

In general, we may conclude from the above figures that the 70 institutions represented in this study are pretty well provided with treatment facilities. Additional canteens are needed so that boys can learn the proper handling of money and buy the things they need.[3] It would seem that every training school should have a place set apart for the practice of religious ceremonies. The same goes for club rooms. The adolescent age "goes" for club activities. Boys like club rooms; they like to decorate them and make them their own. The comments of superintendents throughout this report on the subject of clubs indicate that this may be one of the strongest morale and character building phases of a school's program.

Only half the schools—34 to be exact —reported disciplinary units. This finding will come as something of a shock to those readers who have assumed that such a unit is an indispensable adjunct to any training school. Apparently it is not. Apparently there are ways of handling difficult boys without sending them to a special disciplinary unit. A later section of this report shows the varied ways boys are disciplined in the 70 schools: segregation was not one of the most frequently used methods. This is an internal check that many of the institutions *do* operate without special disciplinary units.

The newer institutions, particularly those for girls, seem to be experimenting with the use of single sleeping rooms. As far as we can tell, no institution provides separate rooms for all its youth. The assignment to a room generally is a privilege to be earned. If there are only a few rooms, they usually are reserved for the "honor" group. Sometimes they are used by those about to be paroled from the school.

SPECIALIZED PERSONNEL FOR TREATMENT

Section 2 of the questionnaire concerned staff workers. Table IV shows the number of different kinds of "treatment workers" employed in the 70 schools.

One school had a total of 28 workers in the 12 fields listed. At the other extreme was one school that had only one part-time specialized worker. The average had five full and two part-time workers.

Social workers — in an institution sometimes called classification workers, parole agents, and so forth — are now apparently the largest professional group in training schools. Linking the family and the institution, they are in a strategic position to personalize the latter and to keep the boy in touch with developments "back home." Certainly

[3] "Boy" is used for convenience throughout the study. Our findings, of course, apply to girls as well as to boys in the 70 training schools. It will be recalled that we received usable questionnaires from 37 boys' schools, from 26 girls' schools, and from 7 schools that accommodate both boys and girls.

TABLE IV

SPECIALIZED PERSONNEL FOR TREATMENT PROGRAMS IN SEVENTY TRAINING SCHOOLS

Worker (alphabetical order)	Number of Workers Full Time	Part Time	Comment
Athletic director	42	4	See "recreational director"
Boy Scout leader	22	2	
Chaplain	38	17	Plus volunteer workers
Classification worker	22	3	See "social worker"
Dentist	32	26	
Medical doctor	37	27	Plus volunteer workers
Psychiatrist*	8	15	
Psychologist*	25	14	See "vocational counselor"
Recreational director	28	5	
Social worker	89	0	36 of the 89 worked in three schools
Sociologist	4	0	
Vocational counselor	34	2	

* Ten schools stated that they received psychiatric and psychological services from public clinics in nearby cities. They did not pay for these services and the workers are not listed in Table IV.

the field of work represented by this group is an essential one to a modern training school program.

If athletic directors and recreation directors are considered together, then the 70 schools had an average of one such worker. Filling the training school boy's time with play activities once was thought of as an institutional frill. Now it is recognized that recreation plays an important role in social training. Elsewhere in this study the superintendents report that they consider their recreational programs the most helpful single program in the modern training school set-up. They have learned that habits can be changed and new attitudes learned on the play field. They know that boys who have found new hobbies and new interests for their leisure hours are better parole risks than boys whose leisure hours still are empty hours.

"Recreation for all the boys" seems to be the slogan in most of the schools. As in the high school and college fields, less attention is being paid the varsity teams and more attention is given the development of a well-rounded recreational program which holds someting of value for every boy in the school.

During the past four years the Osborne Association, Inc., has published two volumes of studies of training schools in the Middle West. Of the 13 schools surveyed in the earlier report, it was reported that none had "regularly scheduled psychiatric service; none had a social service program under trained direction; one had full-time psychological service and three had part-time service in this field."[4]

In this study we were especially interested in discovering the nature and extent of definite mental hygiene programs being carried on in American training schools. It would seem that considerable progress was being made in adding mental hygiene workers to the staffs of these schools. More will be said on a later page about the programs

[4] *See Handbook of American Institutions for Juvenile Delinquents*, Vol. 1, p. 20. Osborne Association, Inc., 114 East 30 Street, New York City, 1938. Vol. 2, dated 1940, shows essentially the same picture for six training schools in Kentucky and Tennessee. Other volumes in this important series are promised in the near future.

those workers are developing.

If we add all the workers together who are interested in the adjustment problems of the individual training school boy — all the psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, sociologists, and vocational counselors — we find no fewer than 160 full-time and 31 part-time workers in the 70 schools. It should be noted, too, that at least ten schools lacking these workers are making use of clinical services found in neighboring cities and universities. Few training schools today lack entirely the service of mental hygienists.

TECHNIQUES OF TREATMENT

It may be concluded from the foregoing that the 70 schools in this study are committed to the philosophy of training, that their physical facilities for treatment are adequate, and that they have the personnel to carry on at least a minimum treatment program. How, the reader will ask, is the philosophy translated into action and how are the facilities and personnel used to promote the treatment work? This is the crux of the matter.

Parenthetically, it might be noted here that the programs of most organizations and movements fall somewhat short of their leaders' objectives. Probably no training school superintendent would claim that his program today is just as he would have it. As we have noted earlier, there always is a gap or lag between philosophy and practice. A situation which results in similar lags exists today in the mental hygiene field. Psychologists and psychiatrists have become expert in *analyzing* certain of the characteristics of human beings. The psychologist may be perfectly right when he evaluates a boy's mental age as twelve years and three months. The psychiatrist may be perfectly right in classifying the same boy as a psychopath with dangerous sexual tendencies. The two workers may write brilliant diagnostic, analytical reports on this boy. The cynic will remark, "So what? No one ever was helped by taking an I.Q. test or by getting a psychiatric label." And he would be right as far as he went. The trouble is, this *is* as far as many mental hygienists do go. They are proficient in analysis but they do not always know what to do after the analysis has been made.

Section 3 of the questionnaire inquired into "Techniques of Treatment." The first part asked about reception policies.

To the average adolescent boy, commitment to an institution away from home is a serious and disturbing experience. Regardless of how tough he may be, what he has heard about any particular training school, and so forth, he must find himself with some apprehensions as he first sets foot inside the institution. Perhaps he has not been in such a school before. He does not know what is going to happen to him—but his imagination doubtlessly has been active and it has conceived all sorts of possibilities. Because he must feel some disturbance of his equilibrium, it seems highly desirable that someone take time immediately to talk with him and try to set him at ease about his new life. By far the best person to perform this service is the head of the institution. The boy will feel that he can believe this person. He will feel that this person is in a position to know the facts better than anyone else and to back up what he says. Also, the superintendent by virtue of his position, becomes immediately a "father substitute" for the boy away from home, and thus it is a helpful experience if the boy can come to know the superintendent through a

friendly interview at the very beginning of the institutional period.

Since few training schools receive more than five or six boys a week and since the first interview need last no longer than twenty or thirty minutes, except in exceptional cases, it would seem possible for almost all superintendents to arrange to see each new boy within a few hours after his arrival at the school. In 43 of the 70 schools in this study, the superintendent or a qualified professional worker *did* assume this responsibility. The replies were not always specific on this point, but a close guess would estimate that 30 superintendents talked with the new boy personally. The number might well be increased. It is believed that such a personalized approach on the part of the superintendent would pay large dividends in terms of orienting the new boy to the school.

RECEPTION PROGRAM

In five schools the new boy is taken on an inspection tour of the buildings and grounds. In seven, he is introduced personally to department heads and outstanding boys. One superintendent remarked, "We make a point of introducing the new boy to some of our *happiest* boys." In one institution the new boy literally is turned loose for a few hours to look around the place by himself. Two institutions contact their boys in the courts and try to give them some idea of what the school is like prior to admission.

As an overall picture, representing a single person's judgment, it may be said that twelve of the schools seemed to have an adequate, well-thought-out reception policy calculated to adjust the new boy to the institution with a minimum of delay and disturbance. In another 33 schools it appeared that a definite, if less complete and successful, attempt was being made to accomplish the same purpose. In the remaining 25 schools apparently very little special attention was being paid to these matters.

ORIENTATION PROGRAMS

The second part of Section 3 asked about orientation programs.

About fifty of the seventy schools reported orientation *periods* but only sixteen described activities that might be dignified as orientation *programs*. A full orientation program would seem to involve many of the same activities that are carried on by progressive colleges during "Freshman Week"—lectures by heads of the school and sometimes by outsiders, tours of the campus, study and discussion groups, inspirational talks, health examinations, distribution of handbooks, tests for diagnostic and classification purposes, play periods to develop good spirit and morale in the individual and group alike, big brother "buddy" or sponsorship plans, and so on. No training school boasted all these activities—perhaps all of them are not called for in a training school program—but seven were close to such an ideal. In the smaller schools, of course, less ambitious programs might be found to be perfectly adequate.

Table V shows the duration of the orientation periods in seventy schools.

TABLE V
LENGTH OF ORIENTATION PERIODS IN SEVENTY TRAINING SCHOOLS

Period	Number Schools	Per Cent
Two weeks or less	25	36
Over two weeks and up to one month	9	13
Flexible period, depending upon boy	6	8
Length of period not stated	8	12
Apparently no induction period	22	31

Most of the schools had separate places to house the new boys, either

"orientation cottages" or hospital wards. With a separate cottage for the new boys, it would seem easiest to develop a full orientation plan.

COTTAGE PROGRAM

Section 3c asked: "What special features of your cottage program are designed to create 'cottage loyalty', 'school spirit?' How does your cottage personnel attempt to enlist the boy's interest and cooperation in the institutional program?"

To a considerable extent the success of any training school rests upon a vital, constructive program in each of its cottages. It is in or around the cottage that the boy spends some fifteen hours of each weekday and usually more of weekend days. He sleeps (sometimes eats, too) in the cottage, has his personal possessions there, plays and makes his best friends there. It is his home in the training school. The cottage is the center of training school life.

The replies to this part of the questionnaire were somewhat disappointing. Of course, the programs described varied from institution to institution and also from cottage to cottage within an institution, but in general they seemed rather lifeless and unimaginative. Adding points (credits) for meritorious behavior or subtracting points for violations of the rules constituted the plan basic to the cottage programs in many of the institutions. Various rewards or punishments usually followed the accumulation of a certain number of points.

Most training schools, being located in rural areas, have abundant space for the construction of play areas. Apparently good use is being made of this space. Many schools reported that they have developed not one but several play areas and athletic fields. In a few instances it was stated that each cottage had its own recreation area. During the warm months these arears may be in use two or three hours daily. A dozen or more superintendents stressed the values of these outdoor play spaces for letting off steam, for the use of varsity teams competing with outside organizations, for intramural sports, for physical training, drills, and other purposes. Certainly a full recreational program contributes noticeably to cottage loyalty and school spirit.

The same may be said of adequate indoor play facilities for the winter months and damp weather. Most institutions are less well equipped for indoor play than for outdoor. One private training school, recently completed, boasts a well-appointed gymnasium for each cottage of boys. This is rare. Most schools have one central gymnasium and rely on an extra room for play use in the cottages. In this room one may find books and magazines, a radio, a few table games, and perhaps some handicraft materials.

Noteworthy "morale building" features for cottage programs mentioned by one or more superintendents included: separate sleeping rooms for honor boys to be decorated (within limits!) according to the individual tastes of the occupants; cottage songs, yells, colors, slogans; competitive drills between cottages; the provision of lockers for personal possessions; cottage councils; banquets or weenie roasts for special occasions; outside speakers and visitors; the development of a family atmosphere by the use of curtains, rugs, attractive bed spreads (for girls' schools especially), davenports, bridge lamps, etc.; games between staff teams and cottage teams; trips to go swimming; visits to nearby factories, historical spots, etc.; increased responsibility for caring for the cottage as the boy shows he is ready

for it; discussion groups; musicals and dramatics. One school mentioned that its girls got a big kick from old fashioned spelling bees.

FOLLOWING THE INDIVIDUAL BOY

Section 3-*d* read: "Describe briefly any system you may have developed for passing on essential information (e.g. bad heart, excellent mechanical ability, needs someone to take an interest in him) on each boy to those who have contact with him daily—cottage masters, shop instructors, etc."

This part of the questionnaire raised the important question of "follow through." In most institutions the new boy is interviewed and examined by a number of persons. Generally these persons write reports on each boy. We were interested in finding out what use was being made of the important information contained in these reports. Were they simply read by the superintendent and perhaps by the department heads or was there some system by which they were transmitted in usable and understandable form to those staff workers that had most to do with the boy from day to day? It goes without saying that the best report in the world is of little value to anyone if it simply is filed away in someone's office. To be of value it must be used. If the boy has been well analyzed and if helpful recommendations governing his training in the institution have been made, it is necessary (if the report is to prove useful) that everyone in the institution who is in any way responsible for this boy be familiar with the study and aware of his part in carrying out the suggestions (treatment plan) contained in it.

Various techniques have been developed for acquainting the staff with the essential information on each boy so that he may be benefitted in a maximum way by his training school experience. In twenty-five schools the superintendent or a professional worker (as a social worker, the director of education, etc.) transmits the information orally to the cottage master or to whomever is concerned. In twelve schools an abstract is made of the full study and copies are passed to the staff workers for their confidential use. In some schools this is done routinely and in others it is done only in those special cases where it seems especially important for everyone to understand the new boy. In eight schools each new boy is discussed in staff meetings of department heads. In one school the boy is present for the entire discussion as it is believed he should be "in" on any planning done in his behalf. Boys with certain physical handicaps are given conspicuous arm bands to wear in another school. In the remaining schools, as far as we could discover from the questionnaire returns, there is no definite arrangement for transmitting this information.

If the most effective use is to be made of the personal data collected on each boy, it would seem necessary to adopt some definite plan and to make it routine for getting these data to the staff members. Most workers in training schools must deal with large numbers of boys. Their groups constantly are changing. Old boys are leaving and new boys are arriving. Often boys are changed from group to group during the months they are in the institutions. For these reasons and others, the written record would seem to offer the best plan of operation. This record need not be long nor the preparation of it a burdensome task. A two-hundred or three-hundred word report in simple language on each boy should suffice. A half-dozen copies of each report would serve the needs of most institutions.

SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES

Section 3-*e* was worded as follows: "Please mention special courses or special teaching methods which you have developed or adapted to 'fit' your boys. Indicate which are successful; which are not so successful."

In general, of course, what is good educational practice for youth in an open community is also good practice for youth in a training school. It is believed, however, that training school youth and the training school community vary in certain respects from other youth and other communities; thus, it follows that special practices are needed to make the education of training school youth most effective.

Some writers have said that each boy in a training school represents the failure of a public school system. "Failure" is a strong word, but we can agree at least that the public schools might be doing much more for some of their students. The same may be said of the training schools. Too often they have been content to carry over *in toto* the program of the public school. While seizing upon the strong points of the public schools, they have copied the mistakes as well.

Few, if any, training schools have capitalized fully the educational possibilities inherent in a twenty-four-hours-a-day control of their youth. In a situation where they might fill each activity of the day with rich educational experiences, they too frequently have been content to operate the usual six-hour school and to leave untouched the remaining hours of the day.

Nothing very outstanding was found in the replies received to this part of the questionnaire. The unit plan with considerable individual instruction was emphasized by many of the schools. This setup offers many advantages to the classroom where students come and go so rapidly. Also, it can be adjusted easily to differences in public school backgrounds and to differences between individuals. The chief disadvantage is the loss of the class discussion feature of traditional instruction. Certainly, most training school youth need these socialized recitation periods.

Three superintendents stated that their youth attended public schools near the institution. A dozen or more training schools offered classes for slow learners. Remedial instruction in the tool subjects was provided by five schools. Several schools mentioned that they had given special thought to the selection of books, magazines, and newspapers for the school library. Others stressed the vocational courses, the classification of pupils by size and ability, the interest that might be aroused by hobby and handicraft groups, the advantages of an informal classroom atmosphere, the need to select those teachers who "have a way" with difficult youth. One superintendent seemed to sum up the thought of many when he wrote, "At school we try to place each boy in some activity where he can succeed."

It is no secret that the average training-school boy resists the idea of attending classes while in the institution. (This applies particularly to youth over sixteen.) Perhaps the training school of the future will elect to carry on its educational program without the "handicap" of a big building called "School House."

IMPROVING SOCIAL HABITS

The final part of Section 3 read: "Please describe briefly any programs you have found useful in correcting your boys' habits of group living (eating habits, work habits, play habits, and so forth)."

The importance of this work in all

training schools does not need to be developed. Youth with good habits of group living rarely enter training schools.

In general, the superintendents replied to this part of the questionnaire that they looked to the school room, to the play ground, and to the personal example and influence of every staff member for the development of proper habits of group living in their boys.

We know that learning good habits is primarily a matter of practicing approved behaviors in different situations over and over again, day after day, until the habits become second nature. Books and classroom teachers may help with the process but building character is much more than a mere academic exercise.

The superintendents were right in placing the responsibility for character development on each and every member of the training school staffs. Undoubtedly the program of correcting faulty habits and building good habits is one that needs to be planned and of a definite nature. It is too much to expect that all the boys in a school will catch (as by contagion) the good habits they see practiced by the adults who live and work with them. Example is a fine teacher. Example implemented by a sound character building program, enrolling every boy and every adult in the school, goes the whole way.

In ten schools the staff eats the same food at the same tables with the boys. In most of these schools the tables are small and one adult easily can supervise those at his table. In six additional schools there is a general supervision of meal periods. In a girls' school table etiquette is discussed as part of a domestic science class. In another girls' school a "Charm and Good Manners Club" has been formed. In a third school an attempt was made to make the meal period a cheerful and home-like time by spreading the tables with cloths, hanging bright curtains at the windows, using good silverware and dishes, and decorating the tables with flowers when in season.

Nine schools reported a direct approach to matters of habit formation through small group discussion periods. Many schools added or subtracted points for good or bad conduct during meal periods and at other times.

The use of group pressures was advocated by several superintendents. They stated that a boy could be corrected more effectively by his peers than by adults. This is a cornerstone of the English Borstal system and it is said to work out well there where group loyalties are stimulated and run high. The success of this plan would seem to depend to a large extent upon the skill and nature of the adult supervision of the group. Undirected and unrestrained group pressures with petty straw bosses (privileged characters), stool pigeons, kangaroo courts, and so forth, certainly are to be avoided.

MENTAL HYGIENE TREATMENT PROGRAMS

Section 4 of the questionnaire asked about individual and group mental hygiene programs in the schools. We were interested in learning who carried on these programs and what the programs were like.

The traditional mental hygiene approach is an individual one. As expected, we found more individual work than group work being done in the schools. About one hundred workers were reported carrying on individual treatment programs. Table VI shows the number and variety of those workers.

Some readers will say that all these workers are not mental hygienists. This

TABLE VI

NUMBER OF MENTAL HYGIENE WORKERS IN SEVENTY TRAINING SCHOOLS: INDIVIDUAL TREATMENT

Worker	Number	
Boy Scout master	1	
Chaplain	3	
Classification worker	2	
Medical officer	1	
Occupational therapy worker	1	(part-time)
Personnel worker	1	
Psychiatrist	7	(plus 14 part-time)
Psychologist	19	(plus 13 part-time)
Reading specialist	1	
Social worker	42	
Sociologist	1	
Superintendent (or Asst. Supt.)	4	
Supervisor of education	4	
Vocational counselor	3	

may be true, but if the school stated that those persons were carrying on mental hygiene work, that was enough for us. We defined "treatment" and "treatment workers" broadly. Undoubtedly, some splendid treatment results are being obtained in American training schools (and elsewhere) by persons with little or no formal mental hygiene training. Of course, *all* workers with youth should have the mental hygiene point of view.

The individual mental hygiene program is generally understood. The worker calls the boy to his office and trys to get him to understand himself better so that he can function more successfully in his training school environment and in other environments later. Often, only boys who are conspicuous failures in the school are seen by the mental hygienists. In some schools, in fact, a boy may be taunted if he has frequent contacts with a mental hygienist. The other boys say, "He must have a screw loose if he has to see that guy all the time." Only in rare cases does the mental hygienist think of his duty as extending equally to all the boys in the school. Some worker someday will demonstrate the need and the value of just this. From the viewpoint of realizing the greatest social returns, it is quite possible that mental hygienists would do well to concentrate their efforts on the outstanding boys in the training school rather than on the failures.

The next table shows the number and variety of mental hygienists carrying on *group* treatment programs.

TABLE VII

NUMBER OF MENTAL HYGIENE WORKERS IN SEVENTY TRAINING SCHOOLS: GROUP TREATMENT

Worker	Number
Boy Scout master	2
Chaplain	1
Medical doctor	1
Psychiatrist	2
Psychologist	4
Recreation worker	3
Social worker	1
Student government adviser	2
Superintendent	1
Supervisor of education	2
Teacher	1
Vocational counselor	1

Approximately one-fifth as many workers are carrying on group treatment programs as individual treatment programs. The group approach is relatively new and as yet largely undeveloped in the training school field and elsewhere, too. The group approach probably never will supplant the individual approach. Both programs probably will be needed with certain individuals and to accomplish certain purposes.

There is a parallel in medicine. We need the physician to minister to the sick and we need a broad public health educational program as well. The indi-

vidual approach and the group approach supplement each other. As a matter of fact, there are not enough doctors in this country to deal individually on all health matters with our 130-million citizens, granting that all could afford medical care. Likewise, there are not enough mental hygienists in our training schools to deal individually on all mental hygiene matters with our 40-thousand youth. It is not necessary that we ever have enough mental hygienists to do this. Certain mental hygiene objectives, as well as certain public health matters, can be promoted through groups as well as individually—perhaps even better.

Thirty of the 70 schools represented in this study reported individual and/or group treatment programs. Sixteen schools made use of clinical facilities in nearby communities or relied upon the services of part-time mental hygienists who visited the school at regular intervals. The remaining schools (24 out of 70) apparently had made no provision for such programs. These figures represent distinct gains from situations revealed by other studies during the past decade.

Little specific information was obtained as to the nature of the group treatment programs. One school reported success with voluntary classes in religious education. Another had developed a "pre-parole program" for boys about to leave the institution. Classes were held in "How to Make Good on Parole," "Manners and Social Customs," and "Choosing, Getting, and Holding Jobs" under the direction of the chief parole officer, a social science teacher, and the psychologist, respectively. Several superintendents spoke of the values in informal group discussions of such subjects as personality development, citizenship responsibilities, the history of customs and laws and the reasons for them, etc. in connection with school classes, club meetings, or cottage forums.

AN EVALUATION OF TREATMENT PROGRAMS

Section 5 of the questionnaire listed 26 subdivisions of training school programs and asked for an evaluation of each of them. A "1-rating" meant that the program was "strong and helpful," a "2" that it was "neutral," and a "3" that it was "negative and harmful." Checked programs were programs regarded as "especially likely to influence delinquent boys for the good." Table VIII shows the ratings of these 26 pro-

TABLE VIII
RATINGS OF THE VALUES OF TWENTY-SIX TREATMENT PROGRAMS BY 69 TRAINING SCHOOLS

Program (alphabetical order)	"1" "Helpful"	"2" "Neutral"	"3" "Harmful"	"Especially Helpful"
Assembly	50	14	0	14
Band	37	12	2	8
Camping out	21	12	5	4
Changing boys' home living conditions	37	10	1	11
Club and hobby	48	10	0	20
Community visits	30	18	6	11
Corporal punishment	6	10	40	1
Demerit	14	15	23	4
Discipline	35	13	11	7
Drama	36	19	1	5
Honor	54	8	2	21
Library	52	10	2	9
Medical-dental	57	6	2	22
Military training	14	11	6	5
Orientation	42	8	1	17
Pre-parole	47	6	1	18
Psychiatric	39	7	4	18
Psychological	45	5	1	19
Recreation	64	1	0	38
Religious	60	6	0	29
Reward	40	13	7	15
School	65	1	0	29
Sex-instruction	30	13	5	11
Shop (vocational)	57	2	0	31
Student government	26	10	13	16
Visitors (parents and guests)	45	13	3	9

grams. One school failed to mark this section.

This table is read as follows: Training school assembly programs were considered "helpful" by 50 superintendents and "harmful" by none. Fourteen considered the assembly programs as "neutral"—neither helpful nor harmful. The same number checked the assembly program as "especially helpful." In general, then, we find the large majority of the superintendents putting their stamp of approval on assembly programs in training schools.

Corporal punishment programs, on the other hand, are generally disapproved although six superintendents rated them as "helpful."

The twenty-six programs cover the usual activities found in American training schools today. The outstanding conclusion from Table VIII is that almost all these programs—19 out of the 26—are found "helpful" by a majority (that is, by 35 or more) of the superintendents. Only one program (corporal punishment) was rated as "harmful" by a majority of the superintendents.

The average superintendent marked six programs as "especially helpful" but eleven superintendents did not so designate any program. A number of the superintendents, apparently, rated only those programs carried on currently in their own institutions.

For purpose of emphasis, the ten "strongest, most helpful" programs are listed, in order, below:

1. Recreational
2. School
3. Religious
4. Shop (vocational)
5. Medical-dental
6. Honor
7. Library
8. Assembly
9. Club-hobby
10. Pre-parole

It is the opinion of representative leaders of American training schools that these are the programs upon which chief reliance can be placed for effecting desirable changes in their youth.

The above list is interesting for its omissions as well as its inclusions. Neither the psychiatric program nor the psychological program are rated among the ten most helpful programs. Since both programs stress treatment, it might have been thought that both would have stood high in such a list.

Seven of the 26 programs (Table VIII) received less than a majority vote under the "helpful" column. This does not mean that the superintendents regarded them as worthless—they simply rated these programs as the weakest among the 26 considered. These programs, in order, stand at the bottom of the superintendents' list:

20. Community visits
21. Sex-instruction
22. Student Government
23. Camping out
24. Military training
25. Demerit
26. Corporal punishment

Sex-instruction programs and student government programs are rated low by the superintendents. Few persons would question youths' need to know the facts of life and to practice democracy, but the superintendents probably hesitated to endorse these two programs because of the ways they have been carried out in some schools.

It should be noted that few programs are "helpful" or "harmful" *per se*. The important considerations are: "How are the programs administered? What is the relationship between the staff and the boys? What is the over-all atmosphere or spirit at the school?

A corporal punishment program cannot be recommended as a policy for dealing with boys in a public institution, but it is conceivable that even a corporal punishment program might, under certain conditions, prove effective in certain cases. There are intelli-

gent parents who, on occasions, spank their children. There are other intelligent parents who would rather die than spank their children on any occasion. The important thing in either case is the parent-child relationship. If the child understands that the parent is *for* him and trying sincerely to help him grow up properly, the form of treatment makes less difference than often is imagined. Conversely, if the relationship is *not* right, it makes little difference if the parent goes by the psychology book or not.

TREATMENT OF DISCIPLINARY CASES

Section 6 asked about practices in the handling of disciplinary cases. Not one of the 70 schools failed to mark this "touchy" part of the questionnaire.

Thirteen possible disciplinary procedures were listed in alphabetical order and each superintendent was asked to check those employed in his school.

TABLE IX
TREATMENT OF DISCIPLINARY CASES IN THE SEVENTY TRAINING SCHOOLS

Disciplinary Procedure	Used	Used Occasionally
Assigned to hard or monotonous work	20	1
Change in diet	12	0
Corporal punishment	16	6
Loss of credits or points	33	0
Lengthened stay in institution	51	0
Minor infractions of rules ignored	40	0
Referred to mental hygienist	39	0
Referred to student council	18	0
Restitution of damage	27	0
Segregation (in group)	19	0
Segregation (isolation)	33	2
Suspended action pending good behavior	49	0
Transfer to another institution	42	0

Other procedures mentioned by one or more superintendents included loss of privileges, referred to superintendent, and shaving of head.

In general, the handling of disciplinary cases in these seventy schools may be described as "modern and enlightened." The trend seems away from punishment measures and towards an understanding and correction of the individual offenders.

Note the five most frequently used disciplinary measures in Table IX. All are good ones. Here they are, in order:

1. Lengthened stay in institution.
2. Suspended action pending good behavior.
3. Transfer to another institution.
4. Minor infractions of rules ignored.
5. Referred to mental hygienist.

It would seem that more use might well be made of the principle of restitution. What could be more to the point, for example, than to have two boys who have been rough-housing in a cottage repair any damage done and clean the playroom dirtied?

MISCELLANEOUS TREATMENT PROCEDURES

The remaining part of the questionnaire, Section 7, consisted of five miscellaneous questions. The answers may be discussed briefly.

The first question was: "Are the boys in your institution encouraged to express themselves freely or are they encouraged to speak only when addressed by an officer?" In 57 schools free expression was encouraged. In 8 schools some freedom was allowed and in one school silence was imposed except when the boy was addressed by a staff worker. Four schools did not reply to this question.

The second question was: "Do you enforce standardized penalties of your rules and regulations?" Ten schools said, "Yes"; 8 said "To some extent"; 48 said, "No"; and four failed to reply.

The third query was: "Do you give each new boy a Hand Book or a Guide Book as he enters your institution?" Thirteen schools supplied such books, 55

did not, and 2 schools failed to reply. Three schools planned to prepare books within the near future. Some schools mentioned substitutes for guide books—letters, posted rules, etc. In a few schools the new boy is required to memorize the rules of the institution during the orientation period.

Question 4 was: "Do you check each boy's record periodically to ascertain if he is making a successful adjustment, satisfactory progress, etc.?" Sixty-two schools said, "Yes"; six said, "No"; and two failed to reply. A few superintendents said, in effect: "We know all our boys so well that a periodical checkup is unnecessary."

The last question was about the use of autobiographies as instruments for increasing self-understanding among youth. Twenty-two schools used this technique, 43 did not, and information is lacking on the remaining five. Nine of the schools using this technique questioned its value, while 4 schools not using it suggested that they were about to experiment with it. One superintendent said, "We tried it but it didn't work." Another said, "I consider the personal conference method better." Only a few superintendents were enthusiastic believers in the use of autobiographies. The consensus seemed to be: This is a technique that might prove helpful with selected cases on a voluntary basis, but it would not "work" with all boys.

CONCLUSION

Study of the 70 completed questionnaires reveals that the training school program, A.D. 1942, is alive and vital. The superintendents, for the most part, are trying sincerely to bring about desirable changes in their programs. There is no stereotyped plan of operation from school to school; rather, there are widely different and distinctive plans not only from school to school but also from cottage to cottage within the different schools. Some of the institutions are more ready to experiment with new programs than others, but few of the institutions in this survey could be labeled "old fashioned" or "satisfied with things as they are."

What the training school of the future will be like, we are not bold enough to guess. It is certain, however, that the diversified programs now being carried on will offer interesting patterns for future building. Perhaps some of the information contained in this survey of 70 training schools of today will help in the planning of more effective training schools for tomorrow.

QUESTIONNAIRE

A Survey of Treatment Programs in Training Schools for Delinquents

Section 1.—Facilities for a Treatment Program in Your Institution

Please check (✓) if your institution is equipped with the following:

.....Academic school
.....Assembly room(s)
.....Athletic field(s)
.....Canteen (commissary)
.....Chapel
.....Club rooms
.....Disciplinary unit
.....Gymnasium
.....Hospital
.....Individual clothing lockers
.....Individual interview rooms
.....Individual sleeping rooms
.....Inside play rooms
.....Vocational shops
.....
.....

Section 2.—Specialized Personnel for Treatment Program in Your Institution

If you have the following workers on your staff, please indicate the number of each on the appropriate lines. Use "½" if any worker is part-time.

.....Athletic director
.....Boy Scout leader
.....Chaplain

.....Classification worker
.....Dentist
.....Medical doctor
.....Psychiatrist
.....Psychologist
.....Recreation director
.....Social worker
.....Sociologist
.....Vocational counselor
.....

Section 3.—Techniques of Treatment

Please write a few sentences in each of the blanks below. If you need more space, just use the margins.

(*a*) How is the new boy received at your institution?† Who is the first to see him? What happens during the first few hours the boy is in the institution?

(*b*) Do you have an orientation program for the new boy? If so, how long is it? Please give the high lights.

(*c*) What special features of your cottage program are designed to create "cottage loyalty," "school spirit?" How does your cottage personnel attempt to enlist the boys' interest and cooperation in the institution program?

(*d*) Describe briefly any system you may have developed for passing on essential information (for example, "bad heart," "excellent mechanical ability," "needs someone to take an interest in him") on each boy to those who have contact with him daily—cottage masters, shop instructors, etc.

(*e*) Please mention special courses or special teaching methods which you have developed or adapted to "fit" your boys. Indicate which are successful; which not so successful.

(*f*) Please describe briefly any programs which you have found useful in correcting your boys' habits of group living (eating habits, work habits, play habits, etc.)

Section 4.—Special Mental Hygiene Treatment Program

Please fill out this section if you have on your staff one or more persons who have specialized in mental hygiene work — personnel workers, psychiatrists, psychologists, sociologists, vocational guidance counselors, etc.

(*a*) List titles of such mental hygienists carrying on *individual* treatment work (psychotherapy) with all the boys or with specially selected boys in your institution.

(*b*) Same for group treatment work.

(*c*) Describe briefly the content and nature of the *group* treatment work.

Section 5.—Phases of General Treatment Program

Below are listed some 26 subdivisions of training school programs which, broadly considered, might all be called "phases of treatment programs." Please check with a—

1—Those which seem to you *strong, helpful* phases (influences)
2—Those which seem to you *neutral* phases (influences)
3—Those which seem to you *negative, harmful* phases (influences)

.....assembly program
.....band program
.....camping-out program
.....changing boy's home living conditions program
.....club and hobby program
.....community-visits program
.....corporal-punishment program
.....demerit program
.....disciplinary program
.....drama program
.....honor program
.....medical-dental program
.....military training program
.....orientation program
.....pre-parole program
.....psychiatric program
.....psychological program
.....recreation program
.....religious program
.....reward program
.....school program
.....sex-instruction program
.....shop (vocational) program
.....student-government program
.....visitors program (parents and guests)
.....
.....

Please underline several of the items marked with a "1" which seem to you *especially likely* to influence delinquent boys for the good. In other words, indicate the *very strongest* of these 26 programs.

Section 6.—Treatment of Disciplinary Cases

Please check (*v*) if the following measures are employed in treating disciplinary cases in your institution.

† Read "girl" if your institution receives girls.

.....assigned hard or monotonous work
.....change in diet
.....corporal punishment
.....loss of credits
.....lengthened stay in institution
.....minor infractions of rules ignored
.....referred to mental hygienist
.....referred to student council
.....restitution of damage
.....segregation (in group)
.....segregation (isolation)
.....suspended action pending good behavior
.....transfer to another institution

Section 7.—Miscellaneous Treatment Procedures

(*a*) Are the boys in your institution encouraged to express themselves freely or are they encouraged to speak only when addressed by an officer?

(*b*) Do you enforce standardized penalties for violations of your rules and regulations?

(*c*) Do you check each boy's record periodically to ascertain if he is making a successful adjustment, satisfactory progress?

(*d*) Do you give each new boy a Hand Book or Guide Book as he enters your institution?

(*e*) Some persons think there are advantages to having youth keep diaries, prepare autobiographies, write out their problems, etc. They think this increases self-understanding and enables youth to cope more successfully with their difficulties.

Have you tried any of these schemes in your institution? If so, please comment upon results.

Section 8.—Philosophy of Institutional Care of Delinquents.

Which of the following in your opinion constitutes the most valid and fundamental objectives of the institutional care of delinquents?

Please mark with a "1" the most valid objective, with a "2" the next most valid objective, etc. Cross out any objective that does not seem valid and fundamental to you.

.....to uphold the law
.....to serve as a deterrent to others who might otherwise be tempted to wrongdoing
.....to punish those who have transgressed the law
.....to rehabilitate those committed to the institution
.....to protect society by isolating its wrongdoers
.....to provide a protected, supervised environment for unstable youth during the stormy years of adolescence
.....to help those committed to the institution to learn to do better those desirable things which they are going to be doing anyway in later life.
.....

.....

.....

(Name of institution reporting)

.....

(Date)

.....

(Name of person reporting)

.....

(Position)

This is the end. Many thanks!

Please enclose this form in the envelope provided. It requires no further addressing and no postage.

We would be very pleased if you would send us a copy of your Hand Book or Guide Book, special study course material, and such other data as you may have prepared relating to treatment programs in your school.

A PROCEDURE FOR OBTAINING REPRESENTATIVE LOCAL NORMS

By RALPH F. BERDIE
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

THE effectiveness of test interpretation is directly related to the relevancy and applicability of available norms. Norms provide points of reference which give meaning to test scores. Raw scores in themselves are meaningless. When some standard of reference is available, however, either in a norm table or as a subjective norm acquired through clinical experiences by the test interpreter, the raw test score acquires meaning. A score is high or low, depending upon the norms used. Just as the individual can only be seen in his social setting, a score can only be interpreted when it is anchored to some social points of reference. Interpretation of a test score can be made only upon consideration of the individual who obtains the score and the norm group with which it is compared.

In many cases, particularly in educational and vocational counseling, the more specific the norm group used, the greater is the usefulness of the test score. The recognition of this fact has led to an effort to obtain norms on well defined, specific groups. The more relevant information available on the norm group, the easier is the task of test interpretation. For instance, in interpreting a score on an English achievement test, if we have not only information on how many years of training in English people in the norm group had but also information about the type of training, we can make a more meaningful interpretation of Junior Brown's test score.

Schneidler (2) has recognized this problem in her normative study of the Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers: "The problem of appropriate norms for tests is one of the most urgent ones which counselors face in applying measuring instruments in guidance programs where individual analysis and diagnosis is an indispensable first step."

This problem has resulted in many workers developing their own local norms on groups with which they are well acquainted. Williamson (6) has described norms obtained on different senior college groups and suggested how these norms could be applied. Dvorak (1), Trabue (5), and Schneidler and Berdie (3) have discussed the use of norm groups well defined in regard to vocational and curricular differences.

Many psychological clinics are faced with the problem of obtaining appropriate norms for the tests they use. National norms supplied by test publishers are often obtained from heterogeneous groups about which little is known. Although it is interesting to know that Mary Bryan's score on the American Council Psychological Examination is average when compared to scores ob-

tained by 54,228 freshmen in 318 colleges in the country, it is essential to know whether she is above average, below average, or average for the students in the college which she is entering.

Psychologists at the Testing Bureau of the University of Minnesota desired to use three tests for which they had no appropriate norms. Norms available were either based on heterogeneous groups which were not well defined, or were too old to be used with much assurance, or were based on groups different from that group of students served at the Testing Bureau. The tests were the Ohio Psychological Examination, Form 21, the Chapman-Cook Speed of Reading Test, and the Cooperative English Test C_2, Reading Comprehension, Form Q.

Previous investigations have shown students coming to the Testing Bureau are representative of students at the University on the basis of high school grades, college aptitude and measured achievement in English (4). For almost every student coming to the Testing Bureau, scores on the American Council Examination and the Cooperative English Test, Form OM, and percentile rank in high school graduating class are available. The distributions of these measures are also available for the freshman classes in each of the colleges of the university.

Procedures

A norm group that could easily be used by workers in the University would be one representative of university freshmen in general. The distribution of scores on the American Council Examination was available for 1660 freshmen entering the College of Science, Literature and the Arts and the General College in the fall of 1941. Comparisons of the means and variances for the men and women in this group revealed no significant sex differences.

A theoretical distribution of 100 cases which would be proportionately representative of the 1660 cases was then set up. The mean A.C.E. score of the large group was 77.20, the standard deviation, 25.80. The mean of the theoretical distribution was 76.80, the standard deviation 25.90. The critical ratio of the difference of the means was .15. The variances were not significantly different, as revealed by an "F" value of 1.01. The comparibility of the theoretical distribution to the total population was thus established.

The next step in the procedure consisted of selecting on the basis of their A.C.E. scores 100 students coming to the Testing Bureau so the distribution of their A.C.E. scores would conform to the theoretical distribution established. Each of these 100 students was given the three tests involved, along with the other tests regularly administered at the Testing Bureau. Only pre-college students and students beginning their first quarter in college were selected.

Results

The group finally selected and tested consisted of 48 men and 52 women. Their mean A.C.E. score was 76.65, the standard deviation 25.43. The group did not differ significantly from either the theoretical distribution or the total freshman class. The mean high school percentile rank for the men was 60, for the women 71. These means are not significantly different from the means found for the entire freshmen group. The sex difference found in high school percentile ranks is consistent with sex differences usually found when considering secondary school grades.

The distribution of scores on the Ohio

Psychological Examination revealed that the norms obtained at the Testing Bureau were higher than the norms supplied by the test publishers. A raw score of 91 corresponded to a percentile score of 50 on the Minnesota norms and to a percentile score of 64 on the Ohio norms. Table I presents the raw scores corresponding to the decile points for the two distributions.

TABLE I

RAW SCORES CORRESPONDING TO DECILE POINTS ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF MINNESOTA STUDENTS AND OHIO STUDENTS

Decile point	Raw Score for Ohio Students	Raw score for Minnesota Students
90	120	120
80	107	112
70	96	106
60	85	101
50	75	91
40	66	80
30	57	70
20	47	59
10	37	47

The inapplicability of the Ohio norms to students entering the University of Minnesota is apparent. Using the Ohio norms, a raw score of 75 would indicate a student had average ability for college work. Referral to the Minnesota norms suggests a student with this raw score would certainly have no better than a borderline chance for collegiate survival.

The necessity for local norms derived from groups similar to those upon which the tests are to be used is here unequivocally demonstrated.

The general procedure here described has an additional advantage. Intercorrelations between tests are a function of the group from which the test scores are derived. The correlation between Stanford-Binet scores and the ability to do long division is very low among five-year olds. Among eleven-year olds, this correlation is substantially higher. Thus, when we are working with a well defined group, it is helpful to know what inter-test correlations are typical of that group.

The correlations found between the tests for these 100 students are presented in Table II. The data involving high-school percentiles have been computed separately for men and women in light of the sex differences existing here.

TABLE II

INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN VARIABLES FOR THE SAMPLE OF 100 STUDENTS

Men and Women	Correlation Coefficient
A.C.E. and Ohio	.74
A.C.E. and Chapman-Cook	.59
A.C.E. and Cooperative English Comp. C_2Q	.72
Chapman-Cook and Ohio	.58
Chapman-Cook and Cooperative English Comp. C_2Q	.56
Ohio and Cooperative English Comp. C_2Q	.80
Men	
High School Percentile and Ohio	.44
Women	
High School Percentile and Ohio	.69

As would be expected, the correlation between the two reading tests is substantial. In line with previous investigations, a high correlation is also found between the A.C.E. and the Cooperative English Test, and the Ohio Psychological Examination and the Cooperative English Test. If the reading tests are measuring reading skills, these skills are closely related to scores on the two tests of scholastic aptitude for this particular group of students.

Summary

The difference between a set of local norms and a set of norms supplied by the test publisher has been pointed out

and the need for utilizing local norms emphasized. The intercorrelations between tests have been determined for a group representative of that upon which the tests are to be used, in recognition of the dependency of the intercorrelations upon the population for which they are found. The general method is practical for psychological clinics and for institutions wishing representative norms but being unable to test their entire populations.

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News Notes

PLANS FOR A NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF PSYCHOLOGY

Professor Edwin G. Boring of Harvard University and Dr. Steuart Henderson Britt, director of the Office of Psychological Personnel, were guest speakers at a meeting of psychologists called by the Metropolitan New York Association for Applied Psychology in the Harkness Academic Theatre, School of Library Service of Columbia University, February 12, 1943.

The meeting was called to discuss proposed plans of the forthcoming inter-society convention of delegates from national psychological organizations to be held under auspices of the Emergency Committee in Psychology late in May. One outcome of the work of the Subcommittee on Survey and Planning of the Emergency Committee in Psychology has been recognition of the need for a national institute of psychology which would unify the interests of the various organized psychological groups.

Dr. Alice I. Bryan, executive secretary of the American Association for Applied Psychology, and a member of the Subcommittee on Survey and Planning, participated in the discussion. She stated that the purpose of the forthcoming convention is to discuss the structural design of national service headquarters for psychologists which would encompass the membership of the various allied psychological groups, among which there is now overlapping in functions and activities. She emphasized that the organization structure would be determined by the participating groups and not by the Subcommittee. Dr. Britt spoke of developments in applied psychology since World War I which have led to the recognition of psychology as a profession and of the need for a central office where the demands for professional psychological service can be more effectively met. Dr. Britt pointed out differences in service of the Office of Psychological Personnel and of the National Roster of Professional Personnel. The former is financed by the A.P.A. and the A.A.A.P., and housed in the offices of the National Research Council in Washington, whereas the latter is a governmental agency.

The program was arranged by Dr. Walter H. Wilke, representing the Metropolitan New York Association for Applied Psychology. About two hundred persons were present, including Professor R. S. Woodworth of Columbia University, who spoke in favor of unified organization.

NEW COURSES

On account of crowded campus conditions due to the war the Pennsylvania State College has found it advisable to offer a seminar on reading instruction the second week in August rather than to conduct an annual conference on

reading instruction, usually held in April.

The Departments of Psychology and Education at Colgate University have started a special study in the field of occupations to determine how the university can give increased service to industry during and after the war. Dr. George H. Estabrooks announces that results of the study will be used to adapt Colgate courses to the needs of industry and of students training for industrial positions. The United States Employment Service is cooperating.

MacMurray College of Jacksonville, Illinois, formerly known as Illinois Woman's College, announces a graduate course for women preparing to become teachers of handicapped children, and clinical psychologists. The course will include extensive clinical experience in cooperating State institutions as well as laboratory experience in a child guidance clinic equipped with special facilities for the observation of child behavior.

At the University of North Carolina a special curriculum leading to the degree of Master of Arts in Personnel Administration has been developed by the cooperating Departments of Psychology, Economics and Commerce, Political Science, Education, Sociology and Social Work. The degree can be earned without a full major in any one of these departments. Further work for the doctorate would then be such a major.

The Department of Psychology at the University of North Carolina has had in operation during the current year a new course in Laboratory Analysis in Personnel Psychology, which deals with job analysis and job specification, job evaluation, and hiring procedure.

Michael Reese Hospital of Chicago announces that Dr. S. J. Beck will offer his usual course this year in the Rorschach test. Emphasis will be on those less serious mental disturbances in which success in treatment appears possible. The differentiating patterns of the test, in these patients, will be studied from full response records, and contrasted with those found in more serious conditions. The course will be in session two two-hour periods daily for five days, June 7-11, 1943. Interested persons are invited to communicate with the Department of Neuropsychiatry, Michael Reese Hospital.

NEW PUBLICATIONS

Exploring the Wartime Morale of High-School Youth, by Lee J. Cronbach, is the first of a series of monographs in applied psychology to be published for the American Association for Applied Psychology by the Stanford University Press. The new monograph series is published under the editorship of Dr. Herbert S. Conrad, Institute of Child Welfare, University of California, with the assistance of the following associate editors: R. G. Bernreuter, E. A. Doll, A. W. Kornhauser, H. E. O'Shea, C. R. Rogers, F. L. Ruch, P. M. Symonds and L. M. Terman. Inquiries should be addressed to Dr. Herbert S. Conrad, College Entrance Examination Board, Princeton, N. J. Inquiries should be addressed to Dr. Conrad.

The first of a series of bulletins entitled, *Bulletin of the Psychological Service Center*, was published by the Psychological Service Center of the Psychological Corporation November, 1942. These bulletins describing services and reporting developments and research undertaken by the Center may be obtained by request from Dr. Rose G. Anderson, director.

GENERAL

Dr. Frank P. Bakes, chairman of the Committee on Contribution of Psychologists to the War Effort, of the Ohio Association for Applied Psychology, was invited to serve as a member of the Day Care Subcommittee of the Welfare and Child Care Committee of the State Council of Defense. Plans are being formulated for developing a program for training volunteer workers in Child care services of the Citizens' Service Corps.

Dr. Fred Brown, chief psychologist for the Child Study Department of the Minneapolis Public Schools, has been granted a leave of absence to accept an appointment as 1st lieutenant in the Army Air Forces Flight Training Command.

Dr. David P. Boder is giving half time as psychological consultant to the Signal Corps Training Program of the Illinois Institute of Technology.

Dr. Robert A. Brotemarkle, professor of psychology at the University of Pennsylvania, has been appointed director of the Psychological Laboratory and Clinic and chairman of the department of psychology. These positions were recently left vacant by the death of Dr. Edwin B. Twitmyer. Dr. Brotemarkle has resigned as Personnel Officer of the College, a position which he has held in conjunction with his teaching activities since 1926, and has assumed his new duties. He has been connected with the department of psychology at Pennsylvania since 1919.

Dr. H. B. English, Ohio State University, has been appointed chairman of the committee on Welfare and Child Care of the Franklin County Defense Council. This is a committee of laymen and social workers concerned with welfare problems raised by military and civilian war work, with particular interest in problems of child care created by mothers employed in industry.

The death of Dr. Elizabeth Evans Lord, psychologist in the Children's Hospital in Boston, occurred January 10, 1943.

Dr. Lillien J. Martin, professor emeritus of psychology at Stanford University, died at her home at the Hotel Plaza in San Francisco, March 26, 1943, at the age of 91. The ninety-first birthday of Dr. Martin was commemorated by the publication of her portrait and a biographical sketch of her life in the JOURNAL, September-October, 1942.

Dr. James Burt Miner, head of the department of psychology at the University of Kentucky, died March 4, 1943, at the age of 69.

Dr. John G. Peatman has been promoted to the rank of associate professor of psychology at the College of the City of New York.

Major Robert T. Rock, Jr., was promoted December 5, 1942 to the rank of lieutenant colonel. He is on duty at the San Antonio Aviation Cadet Center.

The death of Edwin Burket Twitmyer, professor of psychology and director of the Psychological Laboratory and Clinic at the University of Pennsylvania, died in Philadelphia March 3, 1943. He was 69 years of age.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE MEASUREMENT OF ADULT INTELLIGENCE. By David Wechsler. Baltimore: The Williams and Wilkins Co., 1941. Pp. xi + 248.

The second edition of *The Measurement of Adult Intelligence* is not materially changed from the first. The primary change is the inclusion of a chapter on the clinical factors of the Wechsler-Bellevue intelligence scales and their diagnostic application.

It is extremely difficult to criticize the book without, at the same time, considering the scales themselves. Dr. Wechsler undoubtedly has made a significant contribution to clinical practice in the organization of well-known tests into a composite scale. Clinically applied, the scale has considerable diagnostic as well as measurement value. The clinical usefulness of this test, of course, will depend on the examiner's familiarity with the test and with the meaning of the test scores from various populations.

Basically, however, the point of origin is the basic philosophy of the test. Wechsler defines intelligence as "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, to deal effectively with his environment." In this sense, *global* is intended to characterize the individual's behavior as a whole. To do this, Wechsler has assembled eleven subtests (including vocabulary): some timed, some untimed, some verbal, some performance, some dealing with acquired knowledges and some dealing with the application to novel tasks.

The first question that can be asked of the scales might be: Is the test measuring a unitary function? Some evidence, based on Dr. Wechsler's standardization group, has already been published by Dr. Balinsky.[1] Dr. Balinsky concludes, "Mental traits change and undergo reorganization over a span of years. Therefore, when interpreting tests of intelligence, it is of importance to take into consideration the age of the individual. The same test, given to a person of a certain age, may not be measuring the same abilities in him as when given to an older or younger person. Even though the whole intelligence scale may yield the same intelligence factors for a wide span of years, the separate tests that composed the scale must necessarily be described in terms of the same factors from age to age."

In order to interpret Dr. Wechsler's contribution, an independent analysis of Dr. Balinsky's data was made, using the Hotelling component analysis. The component analysis has the virtue of developing statistically independent traits from a matrix of intercorrelations. It is important to recognize that the first factor does not contribute the same proportion to the total variance at each age level. The first factor would probably be the nearest approach to a general factor of intelligence, something like Spearman's g.

In the age-9 group, the first factor accounts for approximately 44 per cent of the total variance; in the 12-year group, 41 per cent; in the 15-year group, 31 per cent; in the 25-29-year group, 27 per cent; in the 35-44 year group, 38 per cent and in the 50-59-year group, 50 per cent. These findings seem to corroborate those of Jones and Conrad that various sub-tests make differential contributions to the total score as a person grows older.

It is particularly important to recognize that in some age groups only about one quarter of the total variance is accounted for in the first factor, whereas in the other age groups almost one half of the total variance is accounted for in the first factor. If intelligence is to be considered as a global whole, one would certainly expect that the relative contribution of a general factor such as g should make approximately the same contribution in all age groups. This, Wechsler's scale undoubtedly does not make. Since Dr. Wechsler implies that "Professor Spearman's generalized proof of the two-factor theory of human abilities constitutes one of the great discoveries of psychology," it should also be recognized that Dr. Wechsler's scale is not a two-factor scale by any means. It is a multi-factor scale, in which the factors are inconsistent from age group to

[1] Benjamin Balinsky, "The Analysis of the Mental Factors of Various Age Groups From 9 to 60," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 1941, 23: 191-234.

age group. The second factor in each age group contributes approximately 13 per cent to the total variance; the third factor about 10 per cent; the fourth factor about 10 per cent. The four factors under no circumstances account for the total test-variance. It is suggested that Dr. Weschsler's scale not only is not a test, but also is not a test of consistent factors.

Combinations of the various factors into a total test-scale must be very difficult to interpret, partly because we do not know the genetic variation in subtest scores nor the genetic variation in factor scores. The clinician, therefore, must interpret cautiously the implication of the test score in terms of the age of the person.

Undoubtedly, Dr. Wechsler's scale raises once more the important question of content and form in intelligence scales. While it is true that psychologists have indicated that variation in content and in form in the measurement of intelligence of children in the age range from 6-15 is relatively unimportant, such is not true in the age range beyond 20. Content and form do make a significant difference in the measurement of intelligence. Scores on verbal content, in general, will tend not to change significantly as a person grows older. Vocabulary scores, for instance, will probably tend to increase to a person's fiftieth birthday. Reading comprehension will probably remain unchanged until the person's fiftieth birthday. Arithmetic reasoning and computation, however, will begin to deteriorate as soon as the person leaves elementary school. Studies indicate that the kind of instruction a person receives while going to school and the kind of experience he has with the content after leaving school, make much difference in the kind of score such a person may make on subtests of varying content and form.

In addition to the problem of content and form, Dr. Wechsler purposely mixes up measures of speed and of power. The mixture of speed and power raises the important problem of what it is that the scales are measuring. Are they measuring the ability to learn, the ability to adjust in the world or the efficiency of behavior? As a person grows older, reaction time declines, visual and auditory acuity decline. Such physiological and sensory changes, in combination with the psychological adoption of tempo may penalize older persons on speed tests. Insofar as they do penalize a person, the interpretation of an intelligence test score becomes complicated. Is the test measuring fundamentally physiological changes or an adopted tempo or is it measuring intellectual power to adjust to the world? Dr. Wechsler's test measures neither well. The number of factors derived at each age level suggests that he is measuring many different things simultaneously. This measurement of many different things simultaneously is not global intelligence, even though a single score may be used to represent a person's position. The test will reflect variation in educational opportunity.

In tests of information, of arithmetic and even of comprehension, the environment and educational background of the person undoubtedly influences his test score. It seems, therefore, that a general appraisal of Dr. Wechsler's scale is that he has made a significant contribution in pooling the ten or eleven tests he has used, but that he has not yet solved the problem of measurement of adult intelligence either globally or differentially.

It is unfortunate that the many contributions to the measurement of adult intelligence that have been made available since 1937 have not been incorporated into Dr. Wechsler's book. It is more unfortunate that some of the typographical errors in the first edition were not corrected in the second. Certainly the Williams and Wilkins Company are not to be congratulated on the second edition. The printing of tables, particularly, does not reflect favorably on a house whose printing is to be *"sans tache."*

IRVING LORGE

TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

COUNSELING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY.

By Carl R. Rogers. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942. Pp. 450.

Here is a book that one can recommend with enthusiasm, confident that it will both interest and instruct those—and their name is legion—who have chosen counseling as a profession or, now and again, have counseling thrust upon them.

The author knows the art of limiting himself to a few major points, in this case certain technical principles, and driving them home in a clear straightforward style, with repetition and many an apt illustration, so that the reader is left with certain precise ideas imbedded in his head. Professor Rogers travels

with no excess baggage: no operational definitions, no multi-syllabled abstractions, no explicit theory of personality. He reaches his goal with a satchelful of commonsense, the goal being to provide evidence for his thesis "that counseling may be a knowable, predictable, understandable process, a process which can be learned, tested, refined and improved." Employing the technique as here outlined the predictable stages of therapy are briefly these: 1, the individual comes for help; 2, the counseling situation is defined: it is one in which "the client can, with assistance, work out his own solutions to his problems"; 3, the counselor encourages free expression of the inevitable negative affections, such as anxiety, hostility, inferiority, guilt and so forth; 4, the counselor accepts, recognizes, and clarifies these negative feelings; 5, the client exhibits some positive tendencies which make for improvement; 6, the counselor recognizes and accepts these tendencies; 7, there is growth in the client's understanding of himself; followed by 8, clarification of possible courses of behaviour; 9, the client acts positively in small ways; 10, further insight; 11, more integrated positive action; and 12, the client's need of help decreases as confidence in his ability to direct his own life develops. All this is most satisfactorily set forth and explained in detail.

The book should prove an effective antidote, if not a cure, for many of the mischievous all-too-human practices of amateur and professional counselors the world over. No doubt certain types of women, with their incommunicable wisdom, have always listened, accepted and recognized, much as do the counselors trained by Professor Rogers; but most men must be taught to inhibit their natural inclinations to impose interpretative formulae on the flow of life. The rules set down here will save him many a mishap. The method is almost fool-proof. As the author says, it can be carried on "by those with little therapeutic experience as well as those with years of work behind them."

Two fifths of the volume is devoted to a verbatim report, phonographically recorded, of the counseling of one Herbert Bryan, complete in eight interviews. So far as the author and myself know, "this is the first time that such a presentation has been made." As a form it is altogether admirable: no better one could have been chosen to illustrate the author's principles in operation. And here the one case is sufficient, since the author is focusing on therapy (not diagnosis) and the single all-important rule of the type of therapy he advocates—to recognize and clarify feeling—is scrupulously obeyed in all cases. "You feel there are limits to what you can do, and you would like me to take over is that it?" Such a remark encourages the client to proceed. His nature does the rest.

As Professor Rogers has foreseen all therapists will not see eye to eye with him on the management of this particular patient. This is inevitable, and I am sure it will in no way detract from the outstanding merit of the book if I acknowledge my impression that the accomplishments of the counseling process in Mr. Bryan's case have been overestimated. The transformation noted is perhaps illusory, superficial, temporary. To take only one example, an incident which the author regards as "the high point in insight." It occurs in the fourth interview when the client says, "In the last analysis, it comes down to this, that I enjoy the neurotic symptoms more but respect them less." This the author accepts as a sign of "amazing progress." "From looking at his problem as a 'blocking' . . . 'an axe pressing down on the whole abdomen,' Mr. Bryan has come to face the fact that he has enjoyed these symptoms because they have served his purpose . . . " Well, in the first place to admit the secondary gains of a neurosis is quite another matter from understanding the genesis and meaning of the symptoms. As far as the reader can learn the axe, left unexplained, is still pressing down on Mr. Bryan's whole abdomen. In the second place it seems quite clear that this insightful client, an avid reader of psychoanalysis, had recognized the possibility of secondary gains long before these interviews took place. Indeed (on page 349) he says that ten years earlier, "I found myself wondering there on the train whether I really wanted to be cured." After eight interviews, to be sure, the client has swung from a rather dejected view of his situation to planning certain expansions of his occupational activities. About these he is optimistic; but the sexual problem which he claimed was at the root of his afflictions—fear of impotence, irrational jealousy, inability to love enduringly—remains unclarified. His chief impediment, narcism with repressed homosexuality, has not been discussed. The client has enjoyed, we may be certain, the privilege of exhibiting, inventing and interpreting himself to so attentive a listener; and he leaves on a wave of ego inflation. But then

what? No follow-up is given.

In the course of many sane comments on the handling of the case, Professor Rogers does not hesitate to rebuke the counselor whenever he ventures an interpretative remark; but he completely overlooks long sequences of deadening banalities, quite enough to drive a client less sensitive aesthetically and intellectually than Mr. Bryan out of the office, his thirst unslaked. A commonplace statement is no true recognition of the feelings of such a man as this. Mr. Bryan is intuitive enough to realize that, among other things, he requires for his cure some memorable elevating utterance (cynically known as a "slogan"); but the counselor, unmindful of Aristotle's dictum that a metaphor is the most powerful force on earth, apperceives the client's effort as an attempt to "trick" himself out of a bad mood (p. 372). Rotarianization can do as much harm to life as some of the errors Professor Rogers condemns so justly.

Leaving aside a few blemishes like this the book can be heartily endorsed. It looks to me like a landmark of past achievement and a signpost to a promising future.

HENRY A. MURRAY
HARVARD UNIVERSITY

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY, INC.

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